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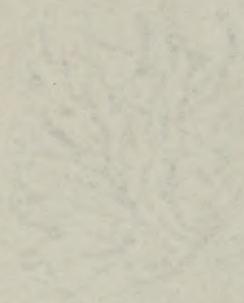
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CHIEF OF BOND

Boston University

Graduate School

Thesis

Shifting Emphases in our American Secondary Education

Submitted by

Helen Frances Cody

(A. B., Boston University, 1923)

In partial fulfilment of requirements for
the degree of Master of Arts

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FOREWORD

In preparing this work it was my desire (1) to study what changes had been made in the aims, subject matter, methods and general spirit of American Education as manifested in the American Secondary School. If even one person enjoys reading my material as much as I have enjoyed collecting it, I shall be satisfied. If, in addition, on account of these pages, any conservative clings hereafter less tenaciously to all that is past and any radical gives due credit to our forefathers, I shall be satisfied twofold.

I have not attempted to write a history of education. I have presented only those facts which reflect the dominant character of each period of American Secondary Education. Even with this limitation, I have doubtless left much for some new and worthier student to develop.

In such an undertaking as mine and, indeed, in all situations of life, we recognize our dependence upon our friends and upon society in general although we do not perhaps always express our appreciation. I should like to acknowledge here my indebtedness to Professor John J. Mahoney whose inspiring courses gave me a keen interest in my present field of study. I am very grateful also to Professor Franklin C. Roberts who has given me much of his valuable time and kindly help and suggestion. Thanks are due also to Professor Jesse Davis and to Mr. William D. Parkinson for some useful references. Good friends have given me faith

In preparing this work I have been helped by many
of our friends and have been made the work, subject matter,
and general spirit of American education as pre-
sented in the American secondary school. It even has been
for me a real pleasure to write it as I have enjoyed
collecting it, I shall be satisfied. It, in addition, on
account of these pages, any conversation which has been
less than necessary to tell that in part and any further
one credit to our forefathers, I shall be satisfied. I shall
I have not attempted to write a history of education.
I have presented only those facts which reflect the char-
acter of each period of American secondary educa-
tion. Even after this limitation, I have endeavored to
write for some new and younger student to develop
in such an understanding as to the past, the present,
and the future of life, we recognize our dependence upon the
past and upon society in general. Although we do not per-
haps always express our appreciation, I shall like to see
knowledge here by introduction to Professor John L. Anderson
whose interesting courses have been a real interest in my present
field of study. I am very grateful also to Professor
Frederick O. Roberts who has given me much of his valuable
time and friendly help and suggestion. Thanks are also due
Professor Jesse Davis and to Mr. William D. Patterson for
some useful suggestions. Good friends have given me help

and confidence in myself as well as material assistance.

To all I am deeply grateful.

Helen Frances Cody,
Rockland, April 5, 1930.

(1) Form of preface similar to, "Making of the Middle Schools",
Brown, E. E., Longmans Green, N. Y. 1910.

and the same is true of the other two.

It is the same in all cases.

John F. Kennedy
Washington, April 1, 1961.

(1) The name of the person who is the author of the letter is John F. Kennedy.
The name of the person who is the recipient of the letter is the President of the United States.

INTRODUCTION

ACTIO-PTORNI

MEANING AND
VARIABILITY
OF EDUCATION

What more fascinating, if perplexing field of endeavor can be found to challenge man's power than that of education? For the teacher and student alike there is still something new ahead, something new to master and even to discover. "Education is, and always will remain, an unfinished experiment. Dictionary-makers will never be able to write a final definition of liberal education. The terms of its definition must shift, from generation to generation, as the stage-setting of life changes. The education that fitted a man for a simple, leisurely and individualistic society will not meet the needs of the complex, busy and interdependent society in which we now find ourselves enmeshed. Every generation must, to some degree at least, evolve its own definition of educational material and method". (1) Every teacher and student must have a workable philosophy; (2) for the way is rough without a map.

Thinkers throughout the ages have expressed various ideas regarding this fundamental institution.

(1) An American Looks at His World, Frank Glenn, University of Delaware Press, Delaware, 1923. P. 195.

(2) Course, Modern Theories of Education, Mahoney, J. J., Boston University---Impression gained.

OF EDUCATION, THE MORE REASONING, IT IS

FIELD OF ENDORSEMENT CAN BE FOUND TO CHALLENGE THE

THEORY OF EDUCATION, FOR THE REASONER AND THE

THERE IS STILL SOMETHING NEW TO BE DISCOVERED

AND EVEN TO DISCOVER, "EDUCATION IS, AND ALWAYS WILL BE,

AN UNFINISHED EXPERIMENT. DISCOVERY, HOWEVER, WILL

THIS TO BE A FINAL DEFINITION OF LIBERAL EDUCATION.

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EDUCATION, AS THE STAGE-SETTING OF THE THEATRE. THE

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EDUCATION, EVOLVE ITS OWN DEFINITION OF EDUCATION

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(2) IN THE THEORY OF THE THEORY, HOWEVER, THE WAY

EDUCATION, HOWEVER, THE WAY IN WHICH WITHOUT

John Milton called " a complete and generous education that which enables a man to perform justly, skilfully and magnanimously all of the offices, public and private, both of peace and war." (1) To President Lowell of Harvard University an educated man is not one who "devotes his erudition to a small thing or who achieves eminence in paths that no one cares to tread; not the man who knows all about the antennae of the paleozoic cockroach or some Greek root; but the man who has the sharpened brain, who has developed that tool so that he can use it for any purpose for which in life he may hereafter desire to use that tool." (2) To meet this requirement an attempt should be made to eliminate in higher education that unfortunate tendency to narrow the point of view.(3) In a democracy such as ours there is demand for a broad vision. We can best attain this end and so serve our country by fostering an education which makes a man "an efficient producer of wealth, a lover of justice in its distribution and a practitioner of wisdom in its consumption";(4) an education that makes "conduct a matter

(1) An American Looks at His World. P. 202

(2) An American Looks at His World. P. 197

(3) Course, Modern Theories, B. U., Prof. Mahoney,
Impression gained.

(4) An American Looks at His World. P. 203

John Milton called "a complete and generous education that which enables a man to perform justly, skillfully and bravely all of the offices, public and private, which God has put upon him." (1) To President Lowell of Harvard University an educated man is not one who "has got his education in a small thing or who achieves nothing in life but one who knows his own mind; not the man who knows all about the sciences of the physical world, or even Greek, Latin, but the man who has the thoughtful habit, who has developed that tool so that he can use it for any purpose that arises in life he may, whether he be a scholar or a worker." (2) To most this requirement an attempt should be made to eliminate in higher education that narrowness of vision which is the point of view. (3) In a democracy such as ours there is no need for a broad vision. To our best and ablest and most active our country by fostering an education which makes a man "an efficient producer of wealth, a lover of justice in its distribution and a practitioner of wisdom in its consumption." (4) an education that makes "conduct a better

- (1) An American Looks at His World. P. 202
- (2) An American Looks at His World. P. 197
- (3) Course, Modern Psychology, P. 11, Prof. Murphy, Princeton University
- (4) An American Looks at His World. P. 202

of government, of public relations and responsibilities, as well as a matter of private habits and character";(1) and finally, an education that leaves its product with a "love of excellence"(2) without any expectation of reward.(3)

(1) An American Looks at His World, P. 206

(2) An American Looks at His World, P. 211

(3) An American Looks at His World, P. 211

of government, of public relations and responsibilities,
as well as a matter of public health and character; (1)
and finally, an education that teaches the student with a
"one of our own" (1) which is an expression of our own.

- (1) In American history at the world, 1. 100
- (2) In American history at the world, 1. 101
- (3) In American history at the world, 1. 102

CONTENTS

	Page
Preface	IV
Introduction	VI

PART I

COLONIAL DAYS

Chapter

I	A Glimpse into the Life of the People.....	1
II	The Latin Grammar School.....	4
	(a) Origin and Purpose.....	4
	(b) Curriculum and Methods.....	7
	(c) Teachers and Pupils.....	10
	(d) Decline.....	16

PART II

PERIOD OF INDEPENDENCE

III	Growth of a National Spirit.....	18
IV	The Academy.....	21
	(a) Creation and Function.....	21
	(b) Curriculum and Methods.....	24
	(c) Teachers and Pupils.....	26
	(d) An Aid to Democracy.....	28
	(e) Decline of the Academy.....	28

PART III

NINETEENTH CENTURY DEMOCRACY

Chapter	Page
V A Changing Civilization.....	30
VI The Early Public High School.....	32
(a) Need and Purpose.....	32
(b) Growth of the High School.....	34
(c) Curriculum and Methods.....	35
(d) Teachers and Pupils.....	40
(e) Outstanding Characteristics of the Century.....	41

PART IV

THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

VII A Changing Social Order.....	43
VIII The Twentieth Century High School.....	45
(a) Aims and Ideals.....	45
(b) Curriculum.....	48
(c) Methods and Practices.....	49
(d) Teachers and Pupils.....	54
(e) Vocational and Educational Guidance..	55
(f) Health Education.....	56
(g) Character Training and Religion.....	57
(h) Civic and Social Education.....	58

CHAPTER 1. THE HISTORY OF THE

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- 1.1.1 The history of the...
- 1.1.2 The history of the...
- 1.1.3 The history of the...
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- 1.2.7 The history of the...
- 1.2.8 The history of the...
- 1.2.9 The history of the...
- 1.2.10 The history of the...

	Page
Summary	59
(a) Retrospect.....	60
(b) Religious Purpose; Personal and Social Efficiency...	61
(c) A Glimpse into the Future.....	62
Bibliography	63

THE HISTORY OF THE COLONIAL DAYS

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CHAPTER I

A Glimpse into the Life and Problems of the People.

Many disagree concerning the relative importance of heredity and environment. No one, however, questions the significance of the two together in forming the individual, the group, the state, and finally the nation. The seed of our national life both physical and mental was planted three hundred years ago by bands of pioneers who were influenced by what they had brought with them in the shape of ideas, beliefs and habits as well as by what they found here in the way of external conditions.(1) Although we are interested primarily in the mental side of this picture, complete understanding demands some consideration of the physical aspect. At the outset and for many long years the Colonists were forced to "subdue a vast wilderness" (2) and to convert it into homes and towns. Their numerous settlements which covered the Atlantic Coast by the end of the period gave testimony of the success of this undertaking. They indicated also the industry, perseverance and energy of a slowly developing American spirit. To the task of subduing the wilderness was added that of conquering the Indians. In the

(1) The Story of Our Country, Burnham, Smith, Winston Co., Philadelphia, 1921, P. 65

(2) The Story of Our Country, Burnham, Smith. P. 71

A Glimpse into the Life and Problems

of the People.

Many passages concerning the relative importance

and of necessity, and every aspect of the

the significance of the fact that the relative

of the group, the state, and finally the nation. The need

of our national life from physical and mental was planned

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(1) The story of our country, from the first settlement to the present day.

(2) The story of our country, from the first settlement to the present day.

interval they must provide not only their own food, shelter and clothing, but most of the materials and instruments by which these were produced. The Colonist was a farmer (1), dependent upon himself alone. He was his own carpenter and blacksmith, tanner and shoemaker." (2) His wife made the soap, candles (3) and many of the articles used in the household. To neither one was the proper use of leisure a problem. The children devoted their surplus energies to helping their parents rather than to debating the justice of parental authority or to scorning the existence of God. Life was simple in its unanimity of opinion and purpose. Living required little deep thinking. Of original thought it demanded nothing. This brings us to the mental phase of Colonial Life, our chief interest.

What did the Colonist think about? What did he believe? Where did he get his beliefs? What did he accomplish through them? The most powerful Colonist of the early seventeenth century was predominantly Calvinistic and English. (4) Spiritually and mentally he was as closely bound to his Mother England (5) as on the day when he had

(1) The Story of Our Country, Burnham, Smith P. 51

(2) The Story of Our Country, Burnham, Smith P. 52

(3) The Story of Our Country, Burnham, Smith P. 51

(4) Cyclopedia of Education, Volume I, Monroe, Paul
MacMillan, N. Y., 1911 P. 498

(5) The Story of Our Country, Burnham, Smith P. 59

intended they must provide not only their own food, shelter
and clothing, but also of the utilities and instruments by
which these were produced. The Colonist was a farmer (1),
dependent upon himself alone. He was his own carpenter
and blacksmith, hunter and hunter. (2) His wife made
the soap, candles (3) and many of the articles used in
the household. To neither was the process one of labor
and a problem. The Colonist viewed his entire existence
to making their goods better than to obtaining the material
of material out of the ground, the existence of man,
life was also in the necessity of action and action.
Little remains little deep in the, of original thought
it demanded nothing. This thing is in the world of
it Colonist life, but what is it?

What was the Colonist's chief object? That his
as believed that he was the Colonist's chief object was to
condition himself for the most powerful Colonist of the
early seventeenth century was undoubtedly Calvinistic and
rigid. (4) Calvinism and morality was not as of today:
born to the Colonist (5) as on the day when he had

- (1) The story of the Colonist, Boston, 1840, p. 21
- (2) The story of the Colonist, Boston, 1840, p. 22
- (3) The story of the Colonist, Boston, 1840, p. 23
- (4) The story of the Colonist, Boston, 1840, p. 24
- (5) The story of the Colonist, Boston, 1840, p. 25

left her side. He attempted to put into operation her methods of government. He was imbued with her sentiments of class distinction. Like her he was not sympathetic toward the theory of equality. Property holding was a necessary qualification of office seekers and even of voters for a time. Moreover, in spite of the fact that he himself, in many cases, had been driven here through religious persecution, he was intolerant of all except Calvinists. The religious views of these Colonists were narrow, severe, repressive, joyless in their rigor. But the fact is significant that they did have religious views which permeated and saturated everyone and everything with which they were concerned. Extremely significant for us is the fact that this religious ardor provided the chief motive for establishing educational institutions. The survival of Calvinism depended upon schools in which each child would be taught to read the Bible for himself and so save his soul. It depended also upon higher schools in which future ministers would be trained to preach the tenets of their faith. Of little wonder is it, then, that these higher schools were set up after only five short years here and in the midst of much peril and hardship.

CHAPTER II

The Latin Grammar School

Earliest Phase of Secondary Education

ORIGIN AND PURPOSE

To Massachusetts belongs the honor of having first established, fostered and perpetuated our earliest successful secondary institution, the Latin grammar school. The religious zeal which demanded an ever increasing trained ministry found able exponents in the enthusiastic Reverend John Cotton of Boston and John Eliot of Roxbury. The latter, at a meeting to consider how the evils of the day might be corrected (1), prayed, "Lord, for schools everywhere among us. O, that our schools may flourish." (2) The former was instrumental in the establishment of the Boston Latin School in sixteen hundred and thirty-five, our oldest successful secondary school.(3) Certain wealthy individuals met and subscribed money (4) "towards the maintenance of a free schoolmaster for the youth with us." (5) This movement encouraged the setting up of other institutions; for we hear of a grammar school

(1) The Making of Our Middle Schools, Brown, E. E., and Longmans, Green & Company, New York, 1910, P. 42

(2)

(3) Early New England Schools, Small, W. H.,

(4) Ginn and Company, Boston, 1914, P. 3

and

(5)

The Latin American School
 Historical Basis of American Education

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in Charlestown in sixteen hundred and thirty-six; in Salem in sixteen hundred and thirty-seven; Dorchester, sixteen hundred and thirty-nine; Cambridge, sixteen hundred and forty; Roxbury and Braintree, sixteen hundred and forty-five. (1) In fact, by seventeen hundred about twenty-seven grammar schools had been begun. (2) In establishing this type of school as their chief educational interest the Colonists were not founding an original American institution; for this would have demanded an American character which they did not then possess. They merely set up on these shores the Latin school of old England in which many of them had been trained. Few changes were necessary to adapt it to their life here which for many years was more English in spirit than American.

No less clear than the origin of these schools was the reason for their existence. Schools were provided to insure good citizenship, an idea not foreign to us of the twentieth century. Religion, however, was considered absolutely necessary to good citizenship, a belief not so generally shared since those early days. Thus, the religious motive was responsible for the schools. Let me prove my point with a few quotations. From "New England

(1) Early New England Schools, Small, W. H.,
and Ginn and Company, Boston, 1914, P. 30.
(2)

First Fruits" (1)a, is the following: "After God had carried us safe to New England and we had builded our houses, provided necessaries for our livelihood, reared convenient places for God's worship and settled the civil government, one of the next things we longed for and looked after was to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity, dreading to leave an illiterate ministry to the churches when our present ministers shall lie in the dust." (1)b. Their effort to prevent such a disaster is seen in the Massachusetts Law of sixteen hundred and forty-seven which states that all towns of one hundred families or householders must set up a grammar school.(2) Even this law is imbued with the religious spirit; for it begins, "It being one of chief point of that old deluder Satan to keep men from the knowledge of the scriptures"--(3) Then the law itself follows. The citizens of Roxbury founded their grammar school "in consideration of their religious care of posterity," (4)a, also, "to fit their children for public service both in church and commonwealth in succeeding ages." (4)b. A second motive for the establishment of these schools closely allied to the religious

(1)a Early New England Schools, Small, W. H.,
and Ginn and Company, Boston, 1914, P. 295.

(1)b

(2) Early New England Schools, Small, W. H., P. 6.

(3) Cyclopedia of Education, Monroe Paul, Editor,
MacMillan, New York, 1911, Volume 2, P. 116.

(4)a Early New England Schools, Small, W. H., P. 6.

and

(4)b

purpose was preparation for college which, in turn, trained future ministers and public officials. So, from whatever angle we approach, religion looms up as the dominating factor in Colonial Education.

CURRICULUM
AND
METHODS

The religious fervor of the Calvinists was responsible for the existence of the Latin grammar school. College requirements were responsible in large degree for its subject matter. At an early date, Harvard dictated as follows: "When any scholar is able to understand Tully, or such like classicall Latine author extempore, and make and speake true Latine in Verse and Prose, suo ut aiunt Marte; and decline perfectly the Paradigms of Nounes and Verbes in the Greek tongue: Let him then and not before be capable of admission into the Colledge." (1) In the typical Latin school "the boys studied Latin from eight o'clock to eleven in the forenoon, and from one in the afternoon till dark. They began with Cheever's Latin Accidence which was followed by Ward's Lilly's Latin Grammar." (2) They read such authors as Aesop, Corderius, Ovid, Vergil, Caesar, Cicero and Horace. (3) Latin seemed to be about

(1) The Making of Our Middle Schools, Brown, E. E.,
Longmans, Green, N. Y., 1910, P. 128

(2) The Making of Our Middle Schools, P. 132

(3) The Making of Our Middle Schools, P. 132

nine tenths of the curriculum. (1) Some time, however, was devoted to Manners and Catechism. (2) Indeed, "the Catechism was taught in all schools until well into the nineteenth century." (3) The following quotations may convince you how thoroughly the curriculum was saturated with religion. "Every day in the week there should be morning and evening prayers, and at two o'clock the scholars should be examined in the Catechism." (4) In the Hopkins Grammar School at New Haven in sixteen hundred and eighty-four, "the boys were to be examined Monday mornings upon the Sunday sermons." (5) Dorchester demanded that "every sixth day of the week at two of the clock in the afternoon, the master shall catechise his scholars in the principles of Christian religion." (6) It was a rule of Haverhill in seventeen hundred and ninety "that Saturdays in the forenoon the master was to instruct his scholars in some catechism and address them on moral

- (1) The Making of Our Middle Schools, Brown, E. E., P. 133
- (2) The Making of Our Middle Schools, Brown, E. E., P. 135
- (3) Early New England Schools, Small, W. H.,
Ginn Company, Boston, 1914, P. 299
- (4) The Making of Our Middle Schools, Brown, E. E., P. 136
- (5) The Making of Our Middle Schools, Brown, E. E., P. 137
- (6) Early New England Schools, Small, W. H., P. 299

and religious subjects." (1) Clergymen visited the schools frequently to examine the children in catechism. In seventeen hundred few children of nine or ten could be found unfamiliar with the Catechism. (2)a This was due to the immense amount of prayer, Bible reading and direct Catechism and religious instruction. (2)b. That the religious instruction was varied is evident from the following: Dorchester in sixteen hundred and forty five rules, "Every second day in the week he (the master) shall call his scholars together between twelve and one of the clock to examine them what they have learned on the Sabbath day preceding, at which time also he shall take notice of any misdemeanor or disorder that any of his scholars shall have committed on the Sabbath; and because all man's endeavors without the blessing of God must needs be fruitless and unsuccessful, therefore it is to be the chief part of the schoolmaster's care to commend his scholars and his labors amongst them unto God by prayer morning and evening taking care that his scholars do readily attend during the same." (3)

Since the school day was very long, usually

(1) Early New England Schools, Small, W. H.,
Ginn Company, Boston, 1914, P.300

(2)a Early New England Schools, P.298
and
(2)b

(3) Early New England Schools, P.301

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either from seven in the morning until five in the afternoon, or from eight until four, (1) it would seem imperative that the schoolmaster use some interesting method of imparting this very solemn material to his youthful charges. Generally, however, he felt no such responsibility. Child psychology was unknown to him and he had no theories. His methods, if indeed he were conscious of any, were too often indifferent and tiresome. He listened to lessons which his pupils memorized and mastered without his help. He seemed satisfied if the reading was executed rapidly and without hesitancy. (2) It mattered little to him that all words were often emphasized exactly in the same degree and that the reader often failed apparently to understand the passage. Not the ability to think was required, but mechanical recitations. In such a classroom the teacher's power over the child was maintained partly through the respect and reverence which the Colonial child instinctively felt for his elders and partly through a generous expenditure of physical force.

TEACHERS

AND

PUPILS

Fortunately, all schoolmen of the day were not dullards. A most interesting early schoolmaster was one Ezekiel Cheever of whom Judge Sewall said: "He labored

(1) The Making of Our Middle Schools. P. 136

(2) Early New England Schools. P. 368

It is a very common mistake to suppose that the

only way of getting rid of a disease is to

kill the organism which causes it.

But this is not always the case. In many

cases the organism which causes the disease

is not the only cause. In fact, the

disease may be caused by a number of

different causes. In fact, the

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in his calling, skilfully, diligently, constantly, religiously, seventy years--a rare instance of piety, health, strength, serviceableness."(1) His pupil, Reverend Samuel Maxwell, spoke thus of him: "He wore a long white beard, terminating in a point, and when he stroked his beard to the point it was a sign for the boys to stand clear." (2) He "wrestled with the Lord" (3) often and long over the souls of his pupils. Cotton Mather eulogized him as follows: "Were Grammar quite extinct, yet at his Brain the Candle might have well been Lit again."(4)

The following three pictures of the "olden schoolmaster" (5)a, are "enlightening." (5)b. According to John Adams, "when the destined time arrives, he enters upon action and as a haughty monarch ascends his throne, the pedagogue mounts his awful chair and disposes right and justice through his whole empire;.....sometimes paper, sometimes his penknife, now birch, now arithmetic, now a ferule, then A B C, then scolding, then flattering, then thwacking, calls for the pedagogue's attention." (6) Here is a different view:

- (1) The Making of Our Middle Schools. P. 113
- (2) The Making of Our Middle Schools. P. 115
- (3) Social Life in Old New England, Crawford, M. C.,
Little, Brown, Company, Boston, 1915 P. 8
- (4) The Making of Our Middle Schools. P. 111
- (5)a Early New England Schools. P. 120
and
- (5)b
- (6) Early New England Schools. P. 121

"Browned by the sun and heat while cultivating his arable acres; his hands like those of the sturdy yeomen rather than a schoolmaster's; his gestures and walk betokening the commanding position which he holds: all are brought to our eyes while we hear him affirm that g-e-s spells guess." (1) Even at this early date the school man considered that the dignity of his position required good clothes. One of them is described thus: "He always wore the three cornered cocked hat made of wool or felt as did the minister. His coat was single breasted and home-made with a broad tail. His breeches were of velvet with silver or plated buckles at the knees. He carried a large ivory-headed cane, and he customarily saluted his pupils on entering the school-room." (2) On the whole, he seems to us a romantic figure. Yet he was often stern and forbidding, harsh and cruel. In spite, however, of his manners and methods and even results, he was interested in the soul of his pupil. Somehow there grew up in the child a spirit of respect, obedience and reverence which served him long after he had forgotten his Latin verbs and poorly taught arithmetic and spelling.

Again we find proof of a period dominated by religion. Who were these school teachers so interested in the souls of their pupils? The early schoolmasters (for

(1) Early New England Schools. P. 121

(2) Early New England Schools. P. 121

they were of Professor Roger's preferred sex) may be divided into three classes: first, a few scholarly individuals who made teaching their life work; secondly, young clergymen recently from college who were awaiting a call to ministerial duties; and finally, a heterogeneous group which realized that one must eat to live, and work in order to eat.(1) Luckily, this latter class did not predominate. Very often, to the dismay of the small boy, the minister proved to be the school teacher and the teacher turned out to be the minister.(2) Although there was a great shortage of teachers in those days, the requirements were rigid---not the intellectual, but the religious qualifications. Since religion assumed such an important place in the curriculum, a man of religion was more necessary than a man of letters. When both were combined in one, the situation was ideal. Regarding the appointment of teachers, the following law indicates the force of religion and morals. In sixteen hundred and fifty-four we had this edict: "for as much as it greatly concerns the welfare of this country that the youth thereof be educated not only in good literature but sound doctrine, this Court doth therefore commend it to the serious consideration and special care of the officers of the College and the selectmen in the several towns, not to admit or suffer any

(1) The Making of Our Middle Schools. P. 110

(2) Early New England Schools. P. 90

such to be continued in the office or place of teaching, educating or instructing of youth or children in the College or schools, that have manifested themselves unsound in the faith, or scandalous in their lives, and not giving due satisfaction according to the rules of Christ."(1) Each schoolmaster had to be certified not only by the selectmen but by the minister.

Another phase of this early education demands a word. Who were the pupils who followed this classical, religious curriculum taught by religious teachers in an age saturated with religious doctrine and dogma? In general, only those boys were admitted to grammar school who had mastered the rudiments of education by means of either private or public instruction. Graduation from an elementary or dame school was not a necessary preliminary. The two schools were not continuous. It was quite likely that the child had never been to school previously but had been taught at home. In either case he must be "able to read English well, to write a legible hand, and be able to enter straightway in Latin accidence." (2) Moreover, the usual age for entering was seven or eight. Can you picture this mere child in an uncomfortable school room from seven A. M. until five P. M., leaving his seat (except at lunch time) only

(1) Early New England Schools. P. 90 and 91.

(2) Early New England Schools. P. 290

long enough to recite deadening declensions and vague catechism to a tiresome master who was not always an Ezekiel Cheever? Here was no "child-centred school" (1) The Colonial child was much in the background. Yet he developed into a pretty fair specimen, perhaps not because of all this, but in spite of it. Benjamin Franklin was a product of the grammar school. He said: "I was put to the grammar school at eight years of age, my father intending as an offering to God to make me a minister of the church. My readiness in learning to read must have been very early, as I do not remember when I could not read." (2) For the most part, the children who attended grammar school came from prosperous, distinguished families. But occasionally the gifted children of poor parents were given an opportunity(3) if their talent was discovered. Sometimes it was not possible for a family to send all its sons to a higher school, however deeply the family might esteem education. In this case the most promising son was sent with the good will and assistance of all the others. Truly, the Latin grammar school was an extremely exclusive institution made so partly by its narrow, strictly college course of study and partly by the oligarchic ideas of the age.

(1) The Child-Centred School, Rugg, Harold.
World Book Company, New York, 1928

(2) Early New England Schools. P. 355

(3) The Making of Our Middle Schools. P. 126

DECLINE In these pages I have been concerned only with the secondary institution as it existed in New Hampshire, Connecticut, and especially in Massachusetts where education flourished. Moreover, I have described only the early Latin grammar school. The later school of seventeen hundred, though essentially the same, attempted to save its life by introducing a drop of the practical into the curriculum. But the effort did not postpone its decay and ultimate decline; for it had not been a popular institution even in its prime. Many towns preferred to be fined rather than to maintain such schools. Their maintenance became increasingly difficult, until by eighteenth hundred the Latin grammar school was no longer in the foreground. (1) The reason for its decline lay within itself as well as outside of itself. The forces within which foreshadowed its doom were these: first of all, it was an exclusive institution that catered to the talented offspring of the few powerful individuals who could afford to esteem and avail themselves of its educational opportunities; secondly, its curriculum was so narrow that it attracted only the professionally inclined, especially the future clergymen; in the third place, it was so sectarian that it came to be resented by a people whose religious beliefs were changing and weakening with the growth of population and material prosperity; and finally, it was not

(1) Early New England Schools, Small, W. H., Page 57.

the popular, free education supported by public taxation which a few far-sighted individuals were beginning to dream about, even in this period when book learning was not indispensable for the masses. In spite of such defects, a few enthusiasts of religion, and education for the sake of religion were able to keep the Latin school alive just as long as the Colonist preserved his old ways of thinking and doing, and as long as the environment remained unchanged. But slowly developing exterior forces---social, economic and religious---found and took advantage of the weaknesses of the educational system. The old system went down to defeat. By the end of the eighteenth century the old Latin school of New England had practically ceased to exist except in a few localities where it has persisted and thrived to this day with some modification. Since education struggles along in the track of civilization it will be necessary to consider the various aspects of the changing life of the people before we examine the new educational institution.

PERIOD OF INDEPENDENCE

PERIOD OF INVESTIGATION

CHAPTER III

Growth of a National Spirit

An institution does not fall like a house under the ravages of a cyclone. On the contrary, its collapse is the natural outcome of a long chain of facts and events. These facts and events which indicated as early as seventeen hundred the approaching doom of the Latin grammar school, and which also paved the way for the academy were manifestations of a changing civilization.

From some points of view the Period of Independence did not begin with the last shot in the climax of a successful war; nor were its beginnings laid in the plan for revolt and liberty. We grant that all this was necessary for the continued growth, security and ultimate glory of the American mind. The roots of a truly national spirit, however, even if not American as we know it today, had begun to appear in the late Colonial period. This national spirit was the result and the accompaniment of economic growth which was only retarded by the war, great territorial expansion in the west, industrial development, increased physical well-being and enlarged and diversified population with its consequent non-conformity and rivalry as well as its new interests and enthusiasms. The Colonist had ceased to be predominantly English and Evangelical Protestant. He was no longer forcing his way into a new wilderness with strange yearnings for what he had

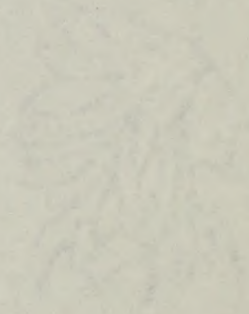
chosen to leave behind. Rather was he being born in his own world which claimed all his attention, interest and love. Moreover, from seventeen hundred and thirty to seventeen hundred and seventy there were some Scotch Irish and Germans who came to these shores. In the face of the increased and differentiated population there could be no complete unanimity as hitherto. Yet there were evidences of a growing love for the new home which was strengthened by the Revolution, (1) by the war of eighteen hundred and twelve and by joys and sorrows which tend to unite hearts more closely. In spite, however, of this new and common sentiment, indeed before it had become thoroughly grown and established by the common struggle of seventeen hundred and seventy-six, various religious beliefs and rivalries had created a religious revival which for the moment in some aspects seemed to lend impetus to the grammar school. But, actually, it meant the downfall of this institution and the creation of the new. Sectarian religion could no longer be taught in such a diversified group. Therefore, a thoroughly religious classical school which trained clergymen lost its appeal. In fact, during the war and for some time afterwards, under the pressure of other problems, all educational interest lagged until it was revived in new form and under more favorable conditions by an increasingly important middle class which was beginning to love education

(1) The Making of the Middle Schools. E. E. Brown, P. 10

for the sake of education and to substitute for theocracy the first rudimentary principles of democracy. In such an environment, the academy, "product of non-conformity" with regard to both religion (1) and curriculum, grew up, flourished and faded, though not into oblivion.

(1) The American High School, Brown, J. F.,
Macmillan Company, N. Y., 1911, P. 15.

HECO BOND



CHAPTER IV

Second Phase of Secondary Education - the Academy

CREATION AND FUNCTION

The demand for a new type of secondary school to meet the needs and problems of a new age was partially satisfied by the establishment in Philadelphia in seventeen hundred and fifty-one of our first American Academy, the project of Benjamin Franklin. Although schools following this differed somewhat, it is interesting to read Franklin's "Proposals" for his Academy; (1) for they indicate a changed view of education.(2) Contrast the spirit of the old Latin grammar school with the following: "As to their studies, it would be well if they could be taught everything that is useful and everything that is ornamental. But art is long and their time is short. It is therefore proposed, that they learn those things that are likely to be most useful and most ornamental; regard being had to the several professions for which they are intended. All interested for divinity, should be taught the Latin and Greek; for physic, the Latin, Greek and French; for law, the Latin and French; merchants, the French, German and Spanish; and though all should not be compelled to learn Latin, Greek, or the modern foreign languages,

(1) The American High School, J. F. Brown, P. 17

(2) The Making of the Middle Schools, E. E. Brown, P.185

THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

CHAPTER IV

CHAPTER IV

THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

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yet none that have an ardent desire to learn them should be refused; their English, arithmetic, and other studies absolutely necessary, being at the same time not neglected."(1) In the foregoing, Bible study and catechism instruction are conspicuous by their absence. Latin is no longer of first importance. English and practical life subjects take the lead. Moreover, we note a tendency to emphasize the individual, to instruct him and to prepare him as an individual for his particular vocation. Individual efficiency was the keynote. People were beginning to believe that their present world and getting ahead in it deserved some consideration. That practice failed to follow theory with one quick stride should not surprise us in our study of the academy; for, with respect to speed, practice and theory are much like the tortoise and the hare. Franklin's institution was the only true academy prior to the Revolution; (2) for this type of school belonged essentially to the Period of Independence. Later notable schools of this pattern were "the two Phillips Academies, at Andover, Massachusetts and Exeter, New Hampshire." (3) The former was incorporated in seventeen hundred and eighty; the latter in seventeen hundred and eighty one. (4) Following these we hear

(1) The American High School, Brown, J. F., P. 17 and 18

(2) The Making of the Middle Schools, Brown, E. E., P. 190

(3) Ibid P. 192

(4) Ibid P. 196 & P. 198.

of Leicester, Derby and Groton Academies in Massachusetts, Clinton Academy and Erasmus Hall on Long Island, Morris Academy at Morristown, New Jersey, the Bingham School at Pittsboro, North Carolina and others. (1) Unlike the grammar school, the academy was popular in all parts of the country. (2) Americans who could not tolerate the old Latin school satisfied their consciences with regard to education by setting up academies. In some places, notably Boston, the Latin school and the academy stood side by side, neither yielding to the other. In general, however, the Colonial institution faded as the academy grew and, in many instances, had disappeared before the latter had come into sight. Academies continued to grow in number and in popularity during the first half of the nineteenth century. (3)

To learn the reason for their creation, let us study the Constitution of the Phillips Andover School which seems typical of other similar institutions. The sponsors of this school sought "to lay the foundation of a public free school or Academy for the purpose of instructing Youth, not only in English and Latin Grammar, Writing, Arithmetic, and those Sciences wherein they are commonly taught; but more especially to learn them the great end and real business of living. The first and principal object of this Institution

(1) The Making of the Middle School, Brown, E. E., P. 199

(2) Education in the United States, Boone, R. G., Appleton, N. Y., 1889, P. 72

(3) Education in the United States, Dexter, E. G., Macmillan, N. Y., 1911, P. 94

is the promotion of true piety and virtue; the second, instruction in the English, Latin, and Greek Languages, together with Writing, Arithmetic, Music and the Art of Speaking; the third, practical Geometry, Logic and Geography; and the fourth, such other of the Liberal Arts and Sciences or Languages, as opportunity and ability may hereafter admit, and as the Trustees shall direct." (1) This must have been a large order. We gather that the founders intended to furnish as extensive and as varied an education as possible to as many individuals as possible that they might be better prepared for life. Although virtue is given first importance we notice the absence of particular denominational principles.

CURRICULUM AND METHODS

The academies had both a classical and a practical side. The first fitted for college those who cared to go and was as rigidly bound to college requirements as the Latin school itself. The second aimed to give a "liberal culture"(2) and to prepare for life. But it was the classical side of the picture that "determined the standards of scholarship."(3) Whatever courses the colleges prescribed whether geography, English grammar, algebra, geometry or ancient history, the academies taught and imposed upon their classical students.(4) They differed from the Latin school in their

(1) The Making of Our Middle Schools, Brown, E. E., P. 195

(2) Ibid P. 229

(3) Ibid P. 232

(4) Ibid P. 232

loyalty, however, in that they adopted for themselves new courses which the colleges did not teach.(1) In fact, as one reads the list of courses of the various academies, he is impressed with the number and the variety. To those subjects previously mentioned may be added surveying, navigation, chemistry, philosophy, history and trigonometry. The classical department was loaded with Latin as of yore. The English course included English in all its forms, grammar, literature and declamation. There was a liberal sprinkling of other so called practical subjects. A pupil pursued either one course of the other. Even with this limitation we wonder at the amount and variety of material which he was expected to master.

We gain the impression that the methods of teaching were somewhat less tiresome and more conducive to enthusiastic coöperation than before. To be sure, modern progressive methods were not yet in vogue nor were professionally trained teachers generally in evidence; for this would have required the prevalence of teacher training institutions. But the general in-pouring and out-pouring of confidence and enthusiasm for their new nation seemed to react upon the schools as well as upon other phases of life. "The doctrine of the rights of man and human freedom", (2) a result of the Revolution and French influence, so pervaded the whole civilization of the period that it served as an elixir. Patriotic declamations

(1) The Making of Our Middle Schools, Brown, E. E., P. 232

(2) Ibid, P. 229

held sway in the schools. American History was beginning to assume a place in the curriculum. Although much abstraction was still taught in an abstract way, the pupil was beginning to be something more than just one of a class which learned and recited meaningless phrases. The methods of teaching were improved with varied and more interesting text books as well as by keen, scholarly teachers.

TEACHERS

AND

PUPILS

Those pupils who enjoyed the privilege of attending an academy were usually very outspoken in its favor. The deep attachment which most graduates felt for the school of their choice was a worthy tribute to the many splendid teachers of the day. One of the "most famous of these early teachers was Benjamin Abbot, L. L. D., second principal at Phillips Exeter." (1) He understood the "science of boys." (2) "He had a long forefinger, and boys of every sort trembled when he shook it ominously before them. He punished with notable thoroughness, but the culprit was restored to respect and favor as soon as the punishment was over." (3) The father of a problem child once told Principal Abbot that "if Lewis was half as afraid of the Almighty as he is of you, I should never have any more trouble with him." (4)

(1) The Making of Our Middle Schools, Brown, E. E. P. 258

(2) Ibid P. 259

(3) Ibid P. 259

(4) Ibid P. 260

Another famous master of the day who exercised his influence in the south was Dr. Moses Waddel of Willington, South Carolina. He was "particularly mindful of individual differences among his pupils. He did not neglect to stimulate the brighter boys as well as to urge on the backward and negligent. Perhaps this is one reason why so many of fine natural abilities came to him, and why they made the most of their talents when they went out into active life."(1) Certainly no finer compliment could be paid to a teacher. In general, the teachers of this period were interesting and well educated. Other requisites were theirs in addition to sound moral character. Most of them were men. But there were women teachers in the few newly established academies for girls.

The academy accepted pupils from all walks of life, theoretically at least. It was a popular institution; for it provided college training for the classically inclined and practical courses for non-academic pupils. In this way, it attempted to reach the masses and in some measure succeeded. But since, strictly speaking, it was no more free than the grammar school, it did not educate "all the children of all the people."(2) Those boys and girls who did enter the academy were more mature than those found in the grammar school.(3) Many came from a distance, were boarded

(1) The Making of Our Middle Schools, Brown, E. E. P. 271

(2) All the Children of All the People, Smith, W. H., (Title)

(3) The American High School, Brown, J. F. P. 244

in the town and watched over by the teachers.(1) How well this fine corps of men did its work is indicated, if not proven, by the success of the graduates, many of whom became eminent figures in the history of their country.

AN AID
TO
DEMOCRACY

Although the academy failed ultimately to serve the Democracy which had clamored for its creation, it was, nevertheless, a forward step in the right direction. It offered more liberal courses to more people and was regarded in its early stages at least, as the school of the middle classes. Girls were welcomed within its halls. It provided elementary teacher training courses in its later days and so was a forerunner of the normal school. It was religious without insisting upon particular dogma. Moreover, from this academy emanated an American enthusiasm and a patriotic fervor as vigorous as the religious spirit of our earlier institution. The academy, indeed, was a "transition" from the old theocracy to "modern democracy."(2)

DECLINE
OF THE
ACADEMY

In spite of its many good points, however, we find the academy declining after eighteen hundred and forty in most of the states of the Union. In its later days the academy had overemphasized the classical curriculum, thereby

(1) The Making of Our Middle Schools, Brown, E. E. P. 244

(2) Ibid

causing a renewal of the old wrath. Moreover, since it was "organized and managed by private effort and supported, for the most part, by private funds,----subscriptions, endowments and tuition fees,"(1) it could not be a continuation of the public elementary school and so serve the whole public.(2) Consequently, changing civilization and changing theories again demanded a new institution. But this new institution had lived for many years before the academy seriously declined in popularity. Even today it serves its purpose.

(1) The American High School, Brown, J. F. P. 23

(2) Ibid P. 24

containing a record of the old school. However, since it was
"abandoned and merged by private effort and enterprise, for
the new part of private funds, and the school, and the
and the school, it is not to be a continuation of the
public elementary school and to serve the whole public.
Consequently, changing the school and changing the school
became a new institution. For this new institution had lived
for many years before the school was established in 1904.
Hence, even today it serves its purpose.

NINETEENTH CENTURY DEMOCRACY

CHAPTER V

A Changing Civilization

America continued to forge ahead socially, politically and economically. This century witnessed the "growth of cities, the rise of manufacturing and industrial transformation"(1) as well as greater political privileges and a gradual leveling of the line of social equality. Although such an environment created new problems, it also produced men who, by their inherited courage and acquired wisdom, were enabled to solve these problems; men who were destined to be spiritual leaders in a period of great educational revival. The murmur that had arisen even before the Revolutionary War in favor of publicly controlled educational institutions had become, about forty years later, a clamor resulting in the establishment of the public elementary school. But this satisfied neither the appetite for education nor the exigencies of the age. Prior to the Civil War, but particularly in the years following with their new vigor and enthusiasm, there was demand for an institution that would continue the elementary schooling; that would welcome the poor as well as the rich; and one that would provide adequate training for life as well as for college. In spite of considerable opposition, this institution, born of a "new educational consciousness,"(2) took its place in our national life by the side of the

(1) Public Education in the U. S., Cubberley, E. P.
Houghton Mifflin, Cambridge, 1919, P. 101--103

(2) Public Education in the U. S., Cubberley, E. P.

THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

The history of the United States is a story of growth and change. It begins with the first settlers who came to the Americas in search of new lands and opportunities. These early explorers and settlers laid the foundation for the nation that would follow. Over the centuries, the United States has grown from a small collection of colonies into a powerful and diverse nation. The story is one of triumph and struggle, of hope and adversity. It is a story that continues to shape the world we live in today.

- (1) The first settlers came to the Americas in search of new lands and opportunities.
- (2) The United States has grown from a small collection of colonies into a powerful and diverse nation.
- (3) The story is one of triumph and struggle, of hope and adversity.
- (4) It is a story that continues to shape the world we live in today.

academy whose glory has become dim in contrast. In this way, unconsciously at first, we entered upon our ladder system of education with the high school destined to become the connecting link between the elementary school and the college. For the first time America conceived education both as a public need and as a public expense.

we have been given the right to be heard. In this way,
unconsciously at first, we entered upon the ladder system of
education with the high school destined to become the college.
The first step was the elementary school and the college.
The first step was the elementary school and the college.
The first step was the elementary school and the college.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

CHAPTER VI

Third Phase of Secondary Education-Early Public High School.

NEED AND PURPOSE

Since the academy had failed to conform to its early policy of providing practical training for life and had gradually yielded to the rigid demands of the colleges, the new Democracy frowned upon it and called for a new institution of learning fitted to continue the education of the elementary school and to furnish practical courses at public expense for all children.(1) Again Boston arose to the occasion, as it had done two centuries before, and set up in eighteen hundred and twenty-one the English Classical School, the first High School in the United States. From the report of the School Committee we gain the impression that it was intended to fulfill a very real need of the day. The public system of education then in existence did not provide the boy at his difficult age with the amount and variety of courses necessary.(2) Thus, he would either emerge an unfinished product or continue with a classical academy education which his parents could perhaps ill afford. Later regulations stated that this school "was instituted with the design of furnishing the young men of the city who are not intended for a collegiate course of study, and who have

(1) The American High School, Brown, J. F., P. 25

(2) Ibid

P. 25

enjoyed the usual advantages of the other public schools with the means of completing a good English education to fit them for active life or qualify them for eminence in private or public station."(1) The first public high school in New York City was founded with the "grand object of preparing the boys for such advancement, and such pursuits in life, as they are destined to after leaving it."(2) Similar reports only serve to convince us that the early high school was intent upon this important business of getting a living as was the early academy. The former, with its practical aim and purpose, was destined to combat the growing cultural tendencies of the latter institution. Like a swinging pendulum were these changes in aim---from the practical to the cultural, from the cultural to the practical, back and forth continuously. First, one of these ideas was dominant; then, the other swayed public opinion. It seemed that they were not destined to live together in harmony. From its early beginnings, however, until late in the century, the high school seemed to maintain its practical aim, at least in theory. Otherwise, there would have been no cause for protest in the year eighteen hundred and eighty against the utilitarian character of the schools. At that time, it was stated that some high schools were "so arranged as to make it appear as if they were

(1) Public Education in the United States, Cubberly, E. P.,
P. 192.

(2) Ibid, P. 193.

sufficient" unto themselves.(1) There was also a lament against the lack of preparation for college and a protest against the schools becoming "so utilitarian that they think Latin and Greek of no practical value."(2) Much consideration was given to the advisability and the importance of college preparation on the part of the high school.(3) Ten years later it was more difficult to determine the purpose of this school. Some claimed that it was a fitting school for college.(4) To others it was a preparation for business.(5) Many considered that the school should perform both functions. An eminent college professor of the day, Charles W. Eliot, made a plea for the individual efficiency of the vast numbers who did not go to college. There was also in these closing years of the century a demand for closer correlation between the high school and the college. Apparently, there was some attempt to give prominence to both the cultural and practical aim. Yet the voices of tradition seemed the louder.

GROWTH OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

Although we have given credit to Boston for establishing the first school of this type, "its real beginning as a distinct institution dates from the Massachusetts Law

- (1) Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1880
P. 141
- (2) Ibid, P. 173
- (3) Ibid, P. 141
- (4) Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1890,
P. 619
- (5) Ibid, P. 619

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of eighteen hundred and twenty-seven "which required the founding of a high school in every town of five hundred or over."(1) In spite of this law and the penalty exacted for its violation, the growth of the high school was extremely slow until after eighteen hundred and sixty. In fact, it was only after eighteen hundred and eighty that it gave definite indication of rising above the Academy in popularity. It was obliged to fight its way through the prejudices of citizens who could not understand why they should be expected to contribute to the education of their neighbors' children. It probably owes its life to the tender nurturing of Horace Mann and similar staunch advocates. Mann was a teacher of the new concept of public education for all. Neither he nor his ideals were fully understood by his contemporaries. Yet many of them were impressed with his glowing fervor and faith. Under such influence and later with new conditions arising from the Civil War, these schools increased from one hundred and seventy-seven in eighteen hundred and sixty-nine to three thousand, one hundred and seventy-nine in the year nineteen hundred and two.(2) Enrollment increased correspondingly.

CURRICULUM AND METHODS

In studying the somewhat indefinite aims of the high school we have noted a tendency to shift from one

(1) Public Education in the United States, Cubberley, E. P.
P. 193

(2) Principles of Secondary Education, Inglis A.,
Houghton Mifflin, Cambridge, 1918, P. 195

of eighteen months, and I have been told that
the school is now in a very good way of being
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to the other in a comparatively short space of time. We should expect a similar tendency in the curriculum through which, with the aid of other factors, educational aims must be realized. No significant changes, however, were actually made in the high school course of study until the late nineties, or indeed, until the early twentieth century. In fact, there are some who believe that the real reorganization of the curriculum is only just beginning. It is certain, however, that the curriculum caused much discussion and was the object of much investigation especially during the last decade of the nineteenth century.

A typical program of the early high school included English in all its forms, geography, arithmetic, algebra, history, logic, geometry, trigonometry, navigation, surveying, philosophy, astronomy. Like the early academy its curriculum was broad and it placed the emphasis upon English and practical subjects. A further manifestation of this utilitarian phase was seen in eighteen hundred and twenty-three when bookkeeping, science and practical mathematics were added to the course. A more important change, however, was made in eighteen hundred and fifty-seven. At that time algebra and United States history were made a part of the elementary school curriculum. Natural philosophy, chemistry, botany, Latin and the civil polity of Massachusetts and of the United States were considered subjects for the lower grade high school (in towns of five hundred families);

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French, astronomy, geology, political economy and intellectual and moral science were established in the curriculum of the larger high school.(1) By the year eighteen hundred and eight-nine, the course of study had become a great bone of contention. At this time more systematic science courses were demanded.(2) Thirty years before science teaching had been rather vague. But it suddenly received new impetus. By the year eighteen hundred and ninety, considered the beginning of the modern period, there seemed to be an increasing demand for manual training and industrial education of all kinds. Such courses as philosophy, intellectual science and navigation disappeared from the program of most high schools. Greek had waned in popularity. From a study of the "percentages of pupils in the public high schools pursuing certain studies" it is evident that during the years 1899 and 1900, the following subjects were preferred in this order: algebra, Latin, English literature, rhetoric, history, physiology and geometry.(3) German came far down on the list followed by French.(4) In general, the high school maintained the broad curriculum of the academy. But in addition, by the end of the nineteenth century, it had developed a little more differentiation and greater opportunities for choice of studies. This step forward was due in no small degree to the earlier

(1) Principles of Secondary Education, Inglis, A., P. 414

(2) Ibid, P. 414

(3) Ibid, P. 414

(4) Ibid, P. 414

conviction of the people that the high school was not performing well its double function; namely, training for college and preparing for life. As a result of this general dissatisfaction, in the year eighteen hundred and ninety-two, the famous Committee of Ten, appointed by the National Educational Association and under the capable leadership of Charles W. Eliot, began an investigation. A perplexing situation confronted them. About forty different subjects, "some merely informational", were being taught in the high schools.(1) There was no co-ordination with either preceding or succeeding studies; nor was the arrangement logical.(2) Moreover, the lack of uniformity among the schools was such that a pupil moving from one town to another was often seriously handicapped.(3) "The chief defect in the high school program, however, was the weakness of the non-classical program in comparison with the classical program."(4) Yet only three percent of the three hundred thousand graduates entered college.(5) Considerable effort, apparently, was being expended upon the minority. Again the trend in education was classical. As a suggestion only, the Committee of Ten organized the subjects taught into four programs: the purely classical; the Latin-Scientific; the Modern Language; and the English.(6)

(1) Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1894,
P.145

(2) Ibid, P.145

(3) Ibid, P.510

(4) Ibid, P.510

(5) Ibid, P.510

(6) Ibid, P.659
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One of these courses of study contained neither Latin nor Greek.(1) In addition, the Committee recommended a more thorough concentration upon fewer subjects and closer correlation.(2) They were of the opinion that the Secondary Course should begin with the seventh year.(3) It was their firm belief that the high school should fit for life as well as for College. Although this investigation had few immediate results that were significant, it paved the way for later important changes.

Since the results of teaching, in eighteen hundred and forty-five at least, were considered very poor, it is perhaps safe to assume that the methods were not wholly sound. This assumption is strengthened by the following enlightening quotation:" It was the children's business to learn and recite; the teachers' to expound and to appraise; and the function of the training given was supposed to be preparation for living. There was much routine, memorization, endless drill and recitation."(4) Instruction continued to be poor until late in the century. The imparting of information and testing seemed to be the sole requisites of the classroom period. Indeed, it is only very recently that our conception has broadened. Even today, in actual practice, there is

(1) Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1894
P. 510

(2) Ibid, P. 511

(3) Ibid, P. 511

(4) National Educational Association Research Bulletin,
September and November, 1925, P. 167

opportunity for considerable improvement. Methods have resisted change even more successfully than the curriculum.

TEACHERS

AND

PUPILS

During the century, especially within the last decade, the teachers received their share of criticism. "Inadequate scholarship" was not so characteristic of them as lack of "instructional knowledge." (1) Most of the high school teachers were college graduates. In general, they knew their subjects, but were incapable of that clear, convincing, forceful presentation which would make their material vital to the pupils and thoroughly understood. Moreover, they failed to understand human nature. The more specialized they became the less sympathetic were their tendencies. Their pupils were merely so many automatons into which they must inject certain definite drops of information. Such inefficient pedagogy continued in spite of the rapid growth of normal schools in the last decade and much discussion concerning the training of teachers; for committeemen and superintendents favored the graduates of the colleges of liberal arts.

(1) Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1898,
P. 712

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OUTSTANDING
CHARACTERISTICS
OF

THE CENTURY

Three powerful forces determined the nature of nineteenth century education. I refer to the influence of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel and others; the Educational Revival; and the National Educational Association founded in the third quarter of the century.

The first of these factors made the period intensely individualistic. The individual ceased to concern himself primarily with his future world, but directed his attention and his energies toward his present life. He became utterly engrossed in his own material success. Getting ahead in the world was his main objective. Science and Commercialism ruled. The thing that pays loomed large. Religion was gradually pushed into the background along with most things essentially spiritual. This new doctrine of the rights of man was destined to exceed all reasonable bounds; for man became so enthralled by his privileges that he forgot the obligations which these privileges involved. The extreme repression of the early period had brought about a strong reaction which we can understand, even if we do not admire it.

The second powerful factor, the Educational Revival, awakened in the hearts of the people a new conception of public education for all and was instrumental in the rapid growth of the high school. In spite of its many shortcomings as to curriculum and methods this was a period of dawning faith in democratic education. There was an attempt at least to give all children something in the way of an education to fit them

for the world of the day.

Perhaps this nineteenth century would have moved along with never a backward glance at its own educational activities if the National Educational Association had not come into existence. This powerful agency, however, fostered a spirit of introspection and constructive criticism, up to that time undeveloped. It provided a means and opportunity for profitable discussion. It placed eminent leaders and educators before the public for all time. Without this organization, perhaps there would have been no Committee of Ten to attempt the solution of the problems of the Secondary School with such ultimate success.

Indeed, this period sowed much and watched and nurtured its budding plants. But it remained for the new century to reap the full harvest. Those "moral elements of the new education which are individual choice of studies and career among a great, new variety of studies and careers, early responsibility accompanying this freedom of choice, love of truth and an omnipresent sense of social obligation"(1) were all conceived and in part attempted by the nineteenth century. To develop these and other elements is a task of the twentieth century.

(1) Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1903,
p. 54

THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

CHAPTER VII

A Changing Social Order

American civilization today has both a favorable and an unfavorable aspect. From a mechanical and industrial point of view this is an extraordinary age filled with glorious achievements---achievements so numerous and so quickly effected that we are no longer inclined to marvel. In fact, the characteristic speed of the age allows no time for wonderment; but hurries us on in frenzied pursuit of money, fame, or some other material goal. New powerful machinery and improved conditions of work aid in giving more leisure than people can afford. Meanwhile the radio is ceasing to be a luxury and the aeroplane becomes more and more popular. Materially we present a favorable aspect.

To evaluate the spiritual worth of an individual or a nation it becomes necessary to determine the ideal of that individual or nation and the degree of success in achieving it. Democracy--political, industrial and social--is the ideal of America. The goal is in sight; but various obstacles block the way. Too many people today are inclined to take lightly their duties as citizens. Some who are even too indifferent to cast a ballot prove to be the loudest grumblers at the results. Certain others vote without a proper understanding of the issues involved. Many are too prone to squelch the ideas of the other individual, not realizing that it is as necessary to respect the minority as it is to

A CHANGING SOCIAL ORDER

A social civilization is today being born.

While we are in the process of being born, we are also in the process of dying.

Our civilization is being born, and our old civilization is dying.

Our old civilization is dying, and our new civilization is being born.

Our new civilization is being born, and our old civilization is dying.

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obey the majority. In addition to individuals of this type we have in our midst those active law-breakers who feel no reverence for any kind of obligation or discipline. Less dangerous perhaps, but mean and petty is the narrow, intolerant individual who lives in this century just as he lived in every preceding age. As an accompaniment and result of such attitudes we find unwholesome family life, juvenile delinquency and crime far too prevalent. Under the weight of such burdens and confronted by many perplexing problems, America is endeavoring to bring her vast heterogeneous population of good, bad and indifferent citizens to a deeper realization of modern democracy. The spiritual aspect of America can be improved. The question before us is: What has the twentieth century school done to help and what will it continue to do more efficiently in the future?

CHAPTER VIII

The Twentieth Century High School.

AIMS
AND
IDEALS

Only the increasing growth of commercial and industrial education and the beginnings of the junior high school, a most significant contribution, distinguished in actual practice the first decade of this century from the preceding. Yet ideas, numerous and various, were paving the way for a new and more definite formulation of educational aims. By the year nineteen hundred and nine many of these ideas had become forceful enough to command attention. At this time, S. D. Brooks, superintendent of the public schools of Boston, claimed that the main object of the high school "is to give its graduates a training that will have large elements of immediate vocational value."(1) During the same year, Nicholas Murray Butler declared it to be the opinion of many "that the rising generation of America is growing up without proper knowledge of the fundamental principles of American institutions and American government."(2) He stated, moreover, that "good citizenship implies a habit of will by which the individual instinctively conforms his action in concrete cases to the abstract principles in which he professes belief."(3) The following enlightening ideas, expressed in the course of this same year, also indicate the approaching and definite change in ideals.

(1) Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1909
P. 194

(2) Ibid, P. 75

(3) Ibid, P. 77

"Poverty, crime, viciousness and inefficiency are preponderatingly due to defective physical condition."(1) "Too long have we gone on under a conception of education that aims to provide a child with a minimum amount of information looking to its economic independence, and too superficially we have touched the problems of culture and spiritual development without which life never rises above the dead level of material existence. Too exclusively we have concentrated upon simple mental acquisition more or less rudimentary, ignoring the great forces of life which are sweeping on irresistibly to results dire or benign according as we adjust ourselves to them."(2) A plea for religious education was also made in nineteen hundred and nine and the opinion expressed that "the root of all morality lies in religion, and that to divorce the one from the other is impossible."(3) Such opinions as the preceding, indicating a shift from the purely intellectual to the spiritual realm, became increasingly stronger and, in proportion, did the conviction grow that the school was not aiding effectively in the realization of these new aims and demands.

Consequently, to give to the public and to the school itself a better understanding of its functions and greater opportunity of accomplishment, a Commission on the

- (1) Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1909,
P. 109
- (2) Ibid, P. 110
- (3) Ibid, P. 131

Reorganization of Secondary Education set up in nineteen hundred and eighteen, seven main objectives called the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education. This Committee had been of the belief that new, broad and vital objectives were demanded by the changes in society, by the character of the secondary school population and by the change in educational theory. Moreover, they were convinced, as were many others, that "education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends." (1) The results of such observations and opinions are manifested in the principles which they formulated and to which most people today subscribe. The first principle of secondary education is health which can be promoted by a program of physical activities as well as by instruction and the inculcating of health habits; the second, command of fundamental processes, may be attained by continuing the training of the elementary school in a new environment and with new material; the third principle, worthy home-membership, requires the development of those qualities that make for wholesome, efficient home life; vocational education, the fourth principle, involves preparation for earning a livelihood and proper relationships between employer and employee; fifth in order we find civic education which should foster

(1) Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, Bulletin, 1918
Government Print P. 9

right understandings and attitudes as well as coöperation and government participation; the next principle, worthy use of leisure, more significant today than ever before, required for its realization the "enrichment" of the whole personality of the individual through music, art and literature; last in order but not in importance comes ethical character which may be developed through every phase of school life and also by direct instruction.(1) Thus, the aims of the high school have been set before us for the first time, clearly, definitely and forcefully. But we are to learn that even strong beliefs and ideals do not necessarily bring action and the desired results. This is an age of much introspection, much criticism and much elaborate theorizing. Practice still lags behind, but is beginning to show hopeful signs.

CURRICULUM In nineteen hundred and ten, forty-five principals of representative high schools, in response to questionnaires, confessed that their schools were offering the old traditional curriculum which consisted of Latin, ancient history, English, algebra, physics, French and German.(2) Moreover, forty-two of them admitted that the procedure in their schools was determined by college requirements.(3) Since that first decade of the century, however, new fields of study have

(1) Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, Bulletin, 1918
P. 11--15

(2) Proceedings of National Educational Association, 1910,
P. 452

(3) Ibid, P. 452

been introduced such as agriculture, home economic, and vocational subjects.(1) Moreover, old subjects have been reorganized and re-named and the six-six plan accepted to considerable extent. Yet, even in the most progressive schools where new subjects abound, the emphasis is usually upon academic studies and the laurels are generally bestowed upon academic pupils. Many teachers themselves consider extremely futile and wasteful of time new courses in citizenship and democracy. In spite of the constant growth in theories and ideals, the curriculum stubbornly resists change. Supposedly, it has been revised many times. But it is again in immediate need of an overhauling more thorough and vigorous than it has ever received before. The question, what to teach, will be answered definitely and satisfactorily when educator and instructor turn to the sociologist. Meanwhile, in spite of the great progress along vocational lines and the introduction of a few new subjects and a few new terms in the curriculum, the chief emphasis, generally speaking, is upon the traditional program.

METHODS

AND

PRACTICES

At the beginning of this century the teacher was still primarily concerned with subject matter and its logical arrangement. Definite slices of subject matter were being systematically and scientifically injected into pupils

(1) Twenty-five Years of American Education, Kandel, I. L., Macmillan, 1924, P. 255

who were not expected to display any abundance of enthusiasm. Such procedure was frankly denounced by John Dewey, educator and philosopher of the day. Dewey was obliged to address two groups of educators; those who believed that greater merit was attached to a subject distasteful to the pupil and those who desired to make subject matter interesting to children. To this latter group he explained that any such attempt would be impossible as long as education was conceived as organized subject matter. According to Dewey, the child, not blocks of subject matter, should be placed in the centre of the picture. Then the child, urged on by his curiosity and by his desire for action, would reach out into the unorganized subject matter around him and take what he needed whether a bit of arithmetic, geography or language. Under the guidance of the teacher, he would learn only that material which he needed. In this way the emphasis would be upon the child and his activities. Interest would arise naturally through this self-activity. Moreover, interest would create effort and the two would continue together harmoniously. To Dewey there was no discord between interest and effort. Like many other pioneers, however, Dewey was unappreciated and not understood. It remained for Kilpatrick fifteen years later to translate his ideas. Kilpatrick made significant such phrases as pupil purpose, felt needs, activity leading to further activity and education for present living. Mere facts are not as important to him as the concomitants of the learning process. Consequently, to him and to his followers

the vital question is: "How shall we teach so that our children will learn economically the necessary knowledges, skills and other outcomes that society demands; and will learn them through such means as are calculated to insure the development of wholesome concomitants?"(1) In answer to this, Kilpatrick, like Dewey, would discard organized subject matter and "concentrate upon children's needs and activities."(2) To his type of teaching Kilpatrick applies the term project, but does not use it in its original sense. To Snedden, Parker, McMurtry and others the term project refers only to producer's enterprise. It was introduced originally with our agricultural courses when various home projects were developed such as raising poultry and nurturing plant growth. To Kilpatrick, however, project means "wholeheartedly purposeful activity in a social context."(3) His project must be permeated with pupil purpose. To prove that such activity and such purpose are the best to develop he discusses the advantages of intrinsic subject matter as opposed to extrinsic. As an illustration of the former, he explains the project of a boy making a wireless and brings to his aid Thorndike's laws of learning. The law of readiness is obeyed; for the ordinary boy is all set to go when it is a question of wireless or something similar. The law of exercise is adhered to in the boy's various attempts toward completion.

(1) Modern Theories of Education-Course-John J. Mahoney.

(2) Ibid

(3) Modern Educational Theories, Bode, B. H.,
Macmillan, N. Y., 1927, P. 157

Finally, successful effort brings positive results, interest and perhaps further growth. Continued growth is an indication of true education. Many practical educators today are in sympathy with Kilpatrick. Like him they believe that more emphasis should be placed upon the pupil, his purpose and his activity. But they agree too with Bagley and others who believe that future needs demand some consideration. In other words, they would take a middle course whereby the pupil would learn what he needed to know, but at the same time his interests and present needs would be considered as far as possible. From the point of view of self-reliance, initiative and enthusiasm at least, it would be a splendid achievement to be able to teach constantly on the plane of pupil purpose. Yet it is pretty well agreed that there must be more than incidental learning, that there must be some logically organized subject matter. The Dewey-Kilpatrick idea has greatly influenced educational thought and, to some degree, educational practice. Although some progressive teaching is being carried on today and much more of it would perhaps be undertaken if teachers could find the way out of the maze of theory, there is an unfortunate tendency on the part of some to boast about new methods when they are actually teaching subject matter to children in the old fashioned way. An apparently progressive scheme which seems to place considerable emphasis upon subject matter is the Dalton plan. According to this scheme each child has monthly contracts of work to fulfill when and as he sees fit.

The work and teaching is for the most part individual. Pupils do not meet regularly in classes. Like most other schemes, both new and old, the Dalton plan has both advantages and disadvantages. With such a system a pupil certainly should gain in resourcefulness, independence and responsibility for his own work and success. On the other hand, attitudes and concomitants learned from group associations in the classroom would tend to be lacking. Such a plan too would tend to give little opportunity for training in harmonious living together. Although the Dalton plan is established today in some school systems it is much more popular outside of the United States, in England and other continental countries.

Another educational practice of today which quite frankly emphasizes subject matter is the testing movement. Although we had always known that individuals differed in ability we waited for the scientist to proclaim it with accuracy. Some results of intelligence tests should have made us wonder how we could maintain our faith in democracy and even tolerate a government controlled by such an unintelligent group. But fortunately, we realize that these tests do not always measure the desirable qualities which insure good citizenship and that a high I. Q. does not necessarily mean a high moral character. Some educators, however, basing their judgment upon these tests, advocate special classes for the gifted and the feeble-minded. Superior individuals, according to some, should be segregated and trained for future leadership.

It would not seem to be a wise procedure to train in an aristocracy individuals who are destined to live in a democracy. Homogeneous classes have their advantages no doubt. But heterogeneous groups would tend to be more favorable for education in a democracy. The recognition of individual differences as well as the testing movement are valuable achievements. But both have been overemphasized. All individuals must and can be taught the fundamental understandings, attitudes and sympathies necessary for a good life in any sphere. Although the means may be varied, the goal can be one. Bewildered perhaps by this survey of various practices and methods we turn finally to the psychologist who will tell us how to help the learner. Although the procedures here described do not represent all the specific methods of the period, I trust that they will serve as an indication of our attempt to teach more efficiently democracy's children.

TEACHERS
AND
PUPILS

Secondary teachers of this twentieth century, are in general, college graduates, especially if they are connected with the academic department. There is a tendency today, moreover, to prefer degree-holding candidates not only for such departments but for many secondary school positions. The teacher of this generation is more familiar with psychology and has more instructional ability than her predecessor.

It would not be a bad idea to have a copy of this book in every school library. The book is written in a simple and easy-to-understand style, and it covers a wide range of topics. The author has done a great job of explaining complex concepts in a way that is accessible to students. The book is well-organized and easy to read. It is a valuable resource for students and teachers alike. The book is written in a clear and concise style, and it is easy to read. The author has done a great job of explaining complex concepts in a way that is accessible to students. The book is well-organized and easy to read. It is a valuable resource for students and teachers alike.

This improvement is probably due in part to the numerous educational courses given by many summer schools throughout the country. In general, however, the teacher today, as in the past, tends to emphasize the subject and to neglect the pupil. She fails to understand that the modern child is likely to be motor-minded, rather than academic; that he has a great variety of new absorbing interests; that he feels no compulsion to respect her merely for her position; and that he is a real challenge to her ingenuity. The teacher of the future high school will understand these facts which some teachers appreciate today.

VOCATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Certain movements looming large today, even if unperfected, indicate the dawn of a new emphasis in education and give cause for rejoicing. Most high schools of this period recognize the need of giving vocational and educational guidance to the vast and heterogeneous group of individuals who throng their halls. It is the duty of the dean or members of the faculty to discuss the world of occupations or educational institutions with the pupil in the light of his capacities and interest. In the larger schools later "follow up" work is also done. Even in the small schools today there is usually some attempt at pupil guidance; for the complex problems of employment and individual differences demand it.

HEALTH EDUCATION

Since the World War we have been well aware of our deficiencies with regard to health. Most large high schools now maintain a department of physical instruction which not only sponsors athletics but instructs in the laws of hygiene. Many schools too maintain "fresh air rooms" for under-developed and under-nourished children. As early as the year nineteen hundred and seven, Boston organized the first department of School Hygiene in the country. (1) This was developed from her system of medical inspection undertaken previously. In coöperation with the Board of Health, school inspectors suggested treatment to those pupils who, upon examination, were found in any way physically unfit. Today in most large school systems we find school nurses, dental hygienists and often psychiatrists. In systems which maintain a physical instruction department the course is usually required. One of the dangers is found in the fact that pupils who learn these health habits may lose them in other work of the school. Here, as everywhere else, close correlation is necessary.

(1) National Educational Association, Proceedings, 1909
P. 119

CHARACTER TRAINING
AND RELIGION
IN EDUCATION

After the separation of the Church and the School and the general revolt against religious instruction, moral education was pretty thoroughly neglected. America appeared to be too busy inventing machinery and accumulating wealth to consider her spiritual side. Today, however, with the deeper insight resulting from the World War as well as from a study of our social life and crime statistics, we recognize that "the product of the schools must be measured in moral no less than in intellectual terms." (1) With considerable enthusiasm public school men are analyzing and correcting from the moral standpoint "courses of study, the environment of students outside the school and methods of teaching." (2) In addition, many schools are giving definite and direct moral training; others are making some contribution to this new education. Apparently of the belief that "moral education requires not only the development of correct ethical insight, but training into moral habits of action," Boston has organized an elaborate character program. This program involves principal and teacher guidance as well as pupil participation. Virtues and good habits are inculcated through the discussion of morality codes, student council, assemblies, home room periods, personality records and various activities. It is a plan which some schools have already adopted and which others would do well to adopt. The danger in this field of education

(1) An Introduction to Educational Sociology, Smith, W. R., Houghton Mifflin, Cambridge, 1917, P. 134.

(2) Ibid,

P. 134

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seems to be a tendency upon the part of some not to consider it a fundamental part of the program and one that "counts."

It would be extremely futile to attempt to train character without religion as the stable foundation and dominating motive. Most people recognize this truth, but realize that religious education is not only a perplexing but a hazardous undertaking. It is generally agreed, however, that God, in some way, must be put back into the picture. A most interesting experiment along this line has been attempted in Gary, Indiana. "Pupils are excused at certain periods of the day, with the written consent of the parents, when the pastor or a selected teacher may take the pupils to one of the churches for religious instruction."(1) In general, however, religious education is not a conspicuous part of the curriculum of most high schools today.

CIVIC AND SOCIAL EDUCATION

Both civic and social education involve character training. The former would be impossible without the latter. It is general belief today that the schools of a democracy should not only impart the understandings and knowledges necessary for effective government participation but also should develop and foster right attitudes and emotional responses. It becomes increasingly difficult as well as necessary to live together in this world harmoniously. Our neighbor is no longer merely the man across the street but the stranger across the ocean. There is scarcely a course

(1) Introduction to Educational Sociology, Smith, W. R.,
P. 132

in the curriculum that cannot, with proper methods, inculcate civic-social virtues. Yet many high schools today properly feel the need of teaching these values directly. Consequently, new courses in citizenship and democracy have been established as well as various activities. Few large high schools have made no attempts at all in this direction. A most effective source of civic-social as well as moral training may be found in extra-curricular activities. Whether the pupil finds his interest in athletics, art, science, literary club or assembly of his own preparation, he is learning in his chosen activity numerous habits and virtues which may be transferred to his later civic life.

SUMMARY

RETROSPECT It is my purpose here to present a bird's eye view of American secondary Education in order to insure a right perspective and proper emphasis of essentials. That highly selective Latin Grammar School, designed for the few by the few, aimed to make people good through an intense, vigorous moral and religious education. Its one course, the classical, loaded with Latin and Greek, prepared future religious and political leaders for college. Solemnly and somberly they prepared for life in the next world. The academy was a reaction against the narrowness of the former school. It aimed through a broad curriculum to give practical training to all youth.(1) "But it gradually became more and more a college preparatory institution and representative of the aristocratic ideas of secondary education."(2) "Moreover, it was a tuition school under private or semi-private control."(3) The academy as well as the Latin grammar school aroused in the people a desire for a publicly controlled institution. "The nineteenth century high school was public and started with a practical aim."(4) But it has been obliged to fight constantly against tradition, and the battle is not won yet.(5) "Gradually, under the dominating power of college

(1) Secondary Education in Country and Village,
Ferriss, E. N., Appleton, N. Y., 1927, P. 3

(2) Ibid, P. 3

(3) Ibid, P. 3

(4) Ibid, P. 4

(5) Ibid, P. 4

entrance requirements, the high school, like its predecessors, became primarily a preparatory institution."(1) It tended to maintain the same traditional courses and standards. Yet its population grew more and more numerous and varied. This inconsistency caused conflict. The wealth of the period brought about more leisure and opportunity for education. The high school was not prepared. Recent tendencies and theories seem to place the emphasis upon the spiritual rather than the intellectual side of man. The high school today attempts to serve the democracy which established it.

RELIGIOUS PURPOSE
PERSONAL AND SOCIAL
EFFICIENCY

It is kindest to judge a man by his intentions, if possible. From this point of view, it seems to me that the Colonist deserved some commendation. He recognized that God must be in the picture. Thus, the Colonial boy was daily made to realize the omnipresence of God. A weakness of the Colonist, it seems to me, lay in his crude, harsh methods and in the gloomy spirit in which he moved. True religion is kind and cheerful. In spite of the deplorable results of this period from an educational standpoint, we cannot but admire the reverence and obedience of the Colonial school boy. The religious fervor of these early pioneers was lost soon after the development of the academy. A period of individualism set in and was destined to last into the twentieth

(1) Secondary Education in Country and Village, Ferris, E.M.,
P. 5

century. The slogan was individual and personal efficiency. After the Civil War, due in part to the urgent and practical problems of the day and the attitude developed by them, this practical and individualistic spirit became stronger. Boys and girls were sent to school to get ahead that they might later attain a good portion of the wealth of the world. The maxim of the survival of the fittest was in operation. God was no longer the chief motivating power and influence. More and more efficiency was demanded. The schools tended to create an intellectual aristocracy. An appalling number of pupils was obliged to leave the high school after the first year. The situation continued until about nineteen hundred and fifteen, or indeed, until the World War. In fact, even today, it is the aim of some individuals to get all possible for themselves in any way possible. But, fortunately, this kind of attitude is not prevalent today either in the school or in the world. The general trend at the present time, while recognizing the necessity for individual growth and self-realization, is toward social efficiency. But, again, we find the way difficult from theory to practice.

A GLIMPSE INTO THE FUTURE

The secondary school of the future will train the individual to the end that he may be not only personally efficient, but socially efficient. This will involve further development of the new movements in education previously described. It will mean less emphasis upon the intellect and information and more recognition of social worth and spiritual

values. It will mean a thorough overhauling of the curriculum and a decided change in method. Keen, sympathetic, enthusiastic teachers will guide happy, earnest, interested pupils in activities which will be not only profitable but enjoyable. The religious fervor of the Colonial days in brighter raiment, as well as the warm loyalties of the academy, will be found in the future school together with the understandings and attitudes of a new and kinder age as developed by a proper interpretation of the Dewey-Kilpatrick program.

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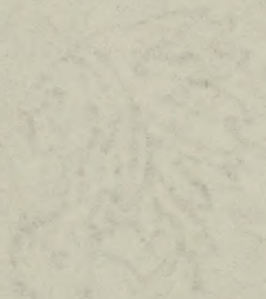
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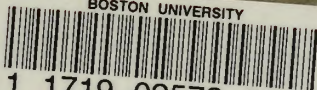
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